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THE EFFECTS OF THE FEMALE-BASED FAMILY AND BIRTH ORDER
ON THE ABILITY TO SELF-DISCLOSE

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
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degree of
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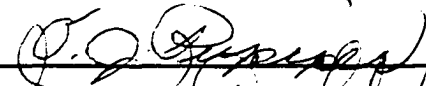
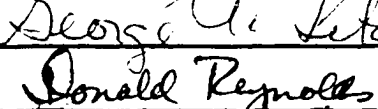
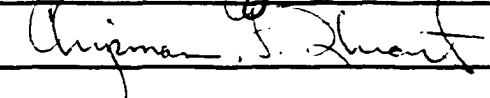
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1970

THE EFFECTS OF THE FEMALE-BASED FAMILY AND BIRTH ORDER
ON THE ABILITY TO SELF-DISCLOSE

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The present study attempted to determine whether or not a difference existed in the ability of freshman college students, from divorced and non-divorced families, to self-disclose to some target person. The secondary purpose of the study was to investigate the extent to which sex, birth order, and length of divorce influenced a person's ability to self-disclose. The present chapter describes the methodological procedures undertaken.

Statement of Problem

In order to investigate particular variables which may be relevant to self-disclosure of freshman college students of one-parent families, the following problem was more extensively explored: To what extent did birth order influence the ability of male and female freshman college students of female-based homes (divorce-separation) to self-disclose to some target person (mother, father, male friend, female friend). In addition,

to what extent were there statistically significant interactions among the four variables of sex, target person, birth order, and length of divorce.

For the purposes of convenience and expediency the independent variables of the present study were designated according to the following symbols:

- T = Target Person (T_1 : mother, T_2 : father, T_3 : male friend, T_4 : female friend)
- S = Sex (S_m : male, S_f : female)
- B = Birth Order (B_1 : first born including only born, B_2 : later born)
- D = Length of Divorce (D_1 : 1-4 years, D_2 : 5-10 years, D_3 : 11 plus years)
- C = Comparison of the non-divorce group versus the divorce group, and pertained to the first or overall analysis of variance. C refers to marital status in all analyses of variance tables

Hypotheses

As the present study was designed to explore the effects of the female-based home (divorce-separation) on self-disclosure, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

Main Effects:

$$HO_1 : T_1 = T_2 = T_3 = T_4$$

$$HO_2 : S_m = S_f$$

$$HO_3 : B_1 = B_2$$

$$HO_4 : D_1 = D_2 = D_3$$

Interaction Effects:

First Order Interaction.

HO_{11} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables T and S

HO_{12} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables T and B

HO_{13} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables T and D

HO_{14} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables S and B

HO_{15} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables S and D

HO_{16} : there is no statistically significant interaction between variables B and D

Second Order Interaction.

HO_{21} : there is no statistically significant interaction among the variables in the following 3-way interaction processes:
T x S x B, T x B x D, S x B x D.

Third Order Interaction.

HO_{31} : there is no statistically significant interaction among the variables in the following 4-way interaction process:
T x S x B x D.

Definition of Terms

Throughout this report the following list of terms and concepts were used most extensively; therefore, in order to avoid any misunderstanding, they were operationally defined as follows:

Intact Family. A nuclear family consisting of

one father, one mother, and one or more biological offspring. The family unit had at no time been broken-up by divorce, separation, or death. (The children were not adopted.) Whether or not the mother was dominant and the father passive had not been known.

Female-Based Family. A nuclear family which had undergone disunity through divorce or separation. Within this family structure the children had remained with the mother. Neither the mother nor father had remarried.

Self-Disclosure. In that many definitions had recently come about dealing with self-disclosure, the present study adhered to Jourard's self-disclosure concept: "the ability to relate oneself to others" (Jourard, 1959).

Subjects

Divorce Group

Due to the unavailability of a large enough population to meet the criteria of the independent variable, female-based family, from which a sample could be drawn, the entire population of 90 freshman students from a female-based home was used. The 90 Ss were drawn from the freshman student body at the University of Oklahoma and consisted of 43 males and 47 females with a combined mean age of 18.12 years and a standard deviation age of .5046 years. Such items as academic

major, socio-economic class, religion, and grade point were not considered since these variables were not applicable to the present study. The preliminary questionnaire (see Appendix A, p. 96), was administered to the English 21 and Psychology 1 classes. Both of these classes were comprised of approximately 4800 freshman students (95 percent) on the University of Oklahoma campus. Out of this number 90 students were selected who were able to meet the criteria listed below. The questionnaire sought information concerning the individual and his family status (age, sex, birth order, and number of siblings within the family). A student was placed in the divorce group if he was single, from a divorced-separated home, and of freshman classification.

Non-Divorce Group

Another 90 freshman college students from intact families were randomly selected from a population of 5000 students which represented the entire University of Oklahoma freshman body population. The sample was comprised of 36 male and 54 female freshman college students with a combined mean age of 18.11 years and a standard deviation age of .5044 years. The same variables were considered in selecting the non-divorce group subjects as with the divorce group.

On the basis of the questionnaire the 90 subjects of the divorce group and the 90 subjects in the non-divorce

group were categorized according to birth order, length of divorce, and sex, which is presented in Table 1. The categories represented the major variables involved in the present study.

Instruments

Self-Disclosure

The Jourard and Lasakow (1958) Self-Disclosure Questionnaire was designed to measure the extent to which individuals self-disclose to different target persons, in six areas of interest involving attitudes, tastes, work (all three considered non-taboo), money, personality, and body (all three considered taboos) (see Appendix B, p. 100). The instrument allowed the subject to rate the degree to which he had spoken about himself to the target persons of mother, father, male friend, female friend, and spouse. Each item on the scale was rated in terms of: 0--no self-disclosure; 1--a general amount of self-disclosure; 2--complete self-disclosure; and X--misrepresentation of the amount of self-disclosure. A general amount of self disclosure, according to Jourard (1958), meant that the subject had only periodically and briefly revealed his present feelings about attitudes and opinions, tastes and interests, work, money, personality, and body, to target persons mother, father, male friend, and female friend. Previous

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE DIVORCE AND NON-DIVORCE GROUP
ACCORDING TO BIRTH ORDER, LENGTH OF
DIVORCE, AND SEX

A. Divorce Group
(n=90)

	<u>Birth Order I</u>			<u>Birth Order II</u>		
	1-4 yrs Divorce	5-10 yrs Divorce	11 Plus Years Divorce	1-4 yrs Divorce	5-10 yrs Divorce	11 Plus Years Divorce
Males	10	9	7	4	7	6
Females	<u>11</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>
Total	21	19	15	12	12	11

B. Non-Divorce Group
(n=90)

	<u>Birth Order I</u>	<u>Birth Order II</u>
Males	23	13
Females	<u>26</u>	<u>28</u>
Total	49	41

studies by Jourard and Lasaskow (1958) suggested that the amount of the self which was revealed was basically of the non-taboo category. A rating of 2 meant that the subject revealed an extensive amount about the self to target persons. Although a subject revealed more about the self by placing a numerical value of 2 within appropriate boxes, there was still a greater disclosure concerning the non-taboo subjects of attitudes, tastes, and work.

An X score for each question(s) suggested that the subject had misrepresented himself in terms of revealing the self to some target person. The X's were usually associated with the taboo questions dealing with money, personality, and body. A 0 score for each question(s) indicated that the subject had not revealed anything about the self to the four target persons.

In addition to the score for specific target persons, the questionnaire scale provided an overall disclosure score which was simply the sum obtained by combining the taboo and non-taboo scores for each of the target persons. An example of a complete rating scale for the Jourard self-disclosure questionnaire is presented in Table 2. Previous research with the instrument (Jourard, 1961) showed an odd-even reliability coefficient of $r = .93$ for the total score. The Jourard study of 1961 produced evidence that the questionnaire

TABLE 2

RATING SCALE FOR THE JOURARD SELF-DISCLOSURE
QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>Example</u>	<u>Target Person</u>			
Questions	Mother	Father	Male	Female
			Friend	Friend
Attitudes and opinions				
What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views.	2	2	2	1
Tastes and interests				
My favorite foods, the ways I like food prepared, and my food dislikes.	2	2	1	1
Work (or studies)				
What I find to be the worse pressures and strains in my work.	2	1	2	1
Money				
How much money I make at my work, or get as an allowance.	1	1	2	1
Personality				
The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me.	0	0	1	0
Body				
My feelings about the appearance of my face-- things I don't like, and things that I might like about my face and head-- nose, eyes, hair, teeth, etc.	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
	7	6	9	4
Total Possible Score per target person 120.		Total Possible Score for the 6 areas, 10 questions per area = 480.		

possessed some measure of predictive validity wherein significant correlations were found between total disclosure scores and three sets of grade point averages during a four year academic program. Former Jourard studies (1958, 1959, and 1961), which dealt with self-disclosure and college grades, have sequentially established construct validity of the instrument. Perhaps construct validation should be considered as a last resort as Jourard had not intended the scale to be used as a predictor of performance.

In order to establish a more precise degree of concurrent validity, the Jourard questionnaire should be substituted for tests other than the Parent Cathexis Questionnaires as was done in his 1958 study. Jourard employed this instrument in a wide variety of studies (Jourard, 1961, 1958) to establish concurrent, construct, and predictive validity.

Questionnaire

The preliminary questionnaire used to gather data about the subjects' family status consisted of 10 specific questions. The first four questions dealt with name, age, sex, and college classification. Questions 5 and 6 dealt with parental status, that is, divorced parents, deceased parents, remarried parents, and non-divorced parents, and length of divorce, separation and marriage, where questions 7, 8, and 9 dealt with the

relative birth order of the subjects. A copy of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix B.

Procedure and Analysis

Procedure

Once information was gathered from the preliminary questionnaire those subjects of the divorce and non-divorce group who met the criteria were contacted by phone. As each of the 180 subjects were contacted, an appropriate time was arranged for them to complete the Jourard and Lasakow Self-Disclosure Questionnaire. Rooms were made available in the College of Education at the University of Oklahoma where students in small groups completed the questionnaire. After the subjects were assembled in the assigned rooms, a research assistant met with them to explain the purpose and procedure of the study and gave appropriate directions for completing the self-disclosure questionnaire. At the beginning of each meeting the research assistant assured the subjects that in no way would names be used. When the students had the self-disclosure in hand, directions were given with respect to rating the amount of self-disclosure projected upon each target person. Directions were also printed on the front page of the self-disclosure questionnaire. Upon completion of the self-disclosure questionnaire the subjects were free to leave.

Statistical Analysis

An analysis of variance was selected in order to test the main effects and interaction effects which were of interest to the present study. Modifications were made in the analysis to accommodate the unequal cell frequencies, repeated measures, and nested variable. An analysis of variance was performed upon the divorce versus non-divorce groups on self-disclosure scores 2 (divorce vs. non-divorce) x 2 (birth order) x 4 (target person) . Upon completion of the 2 (divorce vs. non-divorce) x 2 (sex) x 2 (birth order) x 4 (target person) analysis of variance separate analyses were conducted to determine the differences and interactions within the divorce and non-divorce groups. The two analyses of variances included a 2 (sex) x 2 (birth order) x 3 (length of divorce) and a 2 (sex) x 2 (birth order) x 4 (target person).

In having selected the proper analysis of variance, information from the Jourard and Lasakow Self-Disclosure Questionnaire was analyzed. The particular cross block design used for the analyses was a Treatment x Level: fixed model, unequal cell frequencies, n 1, and repeated measures.

Since an analysis of variance only has the ability to determine if a statistical significance occurred within the comparison, a modified orthogonal

analysis would be necessary to determine wherein the differences exist. Should main effects be non-significant and one of their interaction counterparts significant, a test for simple effects would be employed to determine the whereabouts of the interaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Previous studies dealing with the effects of female-based broken homes on children generally represent three varied approaches: 1) accounts of delinquents (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Edmonson, 1960; Goode, 1956; Kriesberg, 1967; Gregory, 1965; Anderson, 1968); 2) cross-cultural studies (Whiting, 1961; Kriesberg, 1967; Carlsmith, 1964; Heckscher, 1967; Parker, 1966); and 3) fantasy and behavior studies suggesting that female-based families of the "broken home" type affect personality and affective development (Freudenthal, 1959; Alcorn, 1962; Burg, 1958; Landis, 1953; Burchirial, 1964).

A home in which the father is missing will have its own special problems for all family members concerned, regardless of the reason for disunity. Through the Baltimore Department of Education (1958), a project was undertaken to bring out into the open some of the problems faced by parents who were raising children due to death, separation, breavement, and the like of their

spouse. Most of the participants were mothers. A discussion group was assembled in which the parents could communicate with each other about common core problems under the direction of a professional counselor. Out of this unique project grew a study (Freudenthal, 1959) designed to evaluate the topics of discussion and observations of the leaders. Results of the study indicated that psychological problems and family tension often accompany the loss of a parent. A constant feeling of being different was one of the resulting emotions with which the child must have had contended.

Causes for divorce are often dependent on the presence or absence of children in the family. From Ernest Mowrer's studies (1927), cruelty as the cause for divorce was characteristic of families having children as against families not having children. Desertion and adultery as the causes for divorce were characteristic of families having less than three children, whereas drunkenness and cruelty were characteristic of families having three or more children.

Divorce--Separation and the Child

Divorce has been a matter of growing concern in this country the past decade. In 1910, the divorce rate for the United States was 87 per 1000 marriages. In 1965, the rate had risen to an estimated figure of over 300 per 1000 marriages. Yearly, over 400,000 couples

have their marriages dissolved; that is, for every four marriages made per year there was one broken (Cadwallader, 1966, p. 65). Many of these 400,000 divorces yearly involve children (Crescimbeni, 1964). Approximately 300,000 children are involved in divorces each year, and there are currently approximately seven million children under eighteen in this country whose parents have been divorced (Idem, p. 66).

The child's future emotional development was greatly influenced by the attitude his parents had taken toward him before and during the divorce proceedings. The most frequent and damaging parental attitudes were resentment and rejection. Some parents came to resent the child because he added to their problems, emotional and legal, and because he made them feel guilty. In the divorce situation, if one parent closely related the child to the other parent, then he almost automatically rejected the one with the other. However, hostility was also directed against the parent who remains. If the divorce came at the stage of a little girl's development when her father had a deep meaning for her, then the mother usually became the main target for her hostile feelings (Despert, 1953). During adolescence, in the divorce situation, the child tended to hold his parents responsible for the dissolution of the marriage and tried to punish them, both usually on an unconscious level

(Freudenthal, 1959).

Whereas the adolescent tended to hold his parents responsible for the dissolution of the marriage and was less likely to feel that their divorce was directed against himself, the young child reached the conclusion that he was the party responsible for the separation of his parents, that he was unable to prevent this family breakup. He felt that the divorce was a rejection of him by his parents. His guilt had spread deep into anxiety over unexpressed associations with "bad." For example, the young child in the divorce situation may think, "I was naughty last week so Daddy doesn't love me anymore and now he's leaving me." These thoughts can cause the child to lose his sense of inner security, to doubt himself as a worthy person, able to attract and hold the love of others (Freudenthal, 1959). (Other consequences of divorce, made by the child during and after divorce proceedings, may be listlessness, poor eating, poor sleeping, irritable and hostile behavior or difficulty with schoolwork (Despert, 1953).)

The legal implications of divorce were also an influence on the child's emotional development. Child custody was probably the most important of these legal aspects. Fishman (1966) estimated that in ninety percent of custody cases the mother prevails. She was less likely to get custody, however, if the husband was the

plaintiff in the action. In this case, when the father received custody, the child was disturbed emotionally. The child felt he was rejected and abandoned by the one adult, his mother, who meant most to him and in whom he placed his greatest investment of faith and love. This belief created in the child feelings of confusion, hostility, doubt, and fear--doubt of his own personal worth in the fear that the person most important to him, his mother, had not loved him (Despert, 1953).

Parental visitation privileges was another legal aspect of divorce emotionally disturbing to the child. If the visiting parent missed one or more planned meetings, the child began to develop some form of psychologically unhealthy insulation against disappointment by withdrawing emotionally. As the time after the divorce lengthened, the visiting parent became less and less familiar with the daily activities of the child, and their parent-child relationship, most important to the child's healthy development, became less and less mutually satisfactory.

Despite the emotionally disturbing aspects of the divorce situation, the children of divorce who were unhappy and ill-adjusted were only a fraction of all unhappy children. There were fewer children of divorce among disturbed children than there were found proportionally among the general population, which included

both well-adjusted children and children in difficulties. In other words, the divorce situation had not necessarily caused the child's emotional disturbance. The emotionally upsetting character of the divorce situation was most dependent upon the age and sex of the child involved, the individual situation, and the personalities of both the child and his parents.

Sex Role Identification in the Broken Home

As a child is developing, he needs the presence of both a father and a mother so that he may conceptualize the proper male and female adult roles set forth by society. In the absence of the proper father image, the child's concept of the mother's role will probably become distorted by the fact that she is trying to assume the role of both father and mother. Furthermore, if the father is absent, or there is no adequate substitute, the child may fail to develop an adequate concept of the adult male role (Alcorn, 1962). Barclay and Susumano (1967) investigated the effects of father absence on cross-sex identification with resulting feminine orientation on adolescent males. Their experimental group consisted of 20 boys who had lived without a father, real or surrogate, since the age of five. The matched control group of 20 male adolescents varied in the fact that they had been raised with a father or father figure. The instruments used were the Gough Femininity Scale and

a semantic differential test (Rod and Frame Test).

The findings of the Gough Femininity Scale and the semantic differential suggested that there was no difference in overt masculinity exhibited by the boys of the two groups. The father-absent boys showed a significantly higher degree of field-dependency on the RFT than did the father-present boys. These results suggested that there would be a higher frequency of feminization in the father-absent group. Later in life, the subject's culture would teach him to seek identification with a masculine image, which he may do in an overly enthusiastic manner in an attempt to deny any association with femininity; thus, overtly expressing a high degree of masculinity, probably in the form of aggression.

Two other studies gave support to these findings in relation to expressions of ultra masculinity by boys from father-absent homes. A study conducted by McCord, McCord, and Thurber (1962) found that a significantly higher proportion of boys in fatherless families than those in complete homes evidenced sex anxiety, and they also showed more underlying feminine traits, as found in a Carlsmith study (1964). The fatherless boy in this critical period may have felt frightened, needed comfort and yet feared to take it from his mother because this was a threat to his masculinity; and this fear, breeding its own guilt, may have caused him to reject her, but

this rejection was, in most cases, only temporary. "A boy who reaches adolescence without having had sufficient opportunity to identify with his father usually has difficulty in deciding who he wants to be, where he wants to go, what he wants to do with his life. Consequently the boy does not know his father well enough to follow in his footsteps" (McCord, 1962, p. 363). Lynn and Sawrey (1959) studied the effects of father-absence on Norwegian boys and girls. In interviews with mothers, Lynn and Sawrey found that a higher proportion of father-absent than father-present boys behaved in an overly masculine manner at some times and at others their behavior was somewhat more characteristic of girls. On the other hand, Burton and Whiting (1961) studied father-absent families as compared to father-present families and indicated that boys from father-absent households behave like girls in fantasy behavior and in overt behavior, especially with respect to the minimal aggression produced by the boys. Conversely, Hetherington (1966) maintained the premise that sex-identity was disorganized when the father was absent from the home and that children were more field-dependent within these families. Hetherington's findings suggested that male children who had no father, or father substitute, with which to identify would have sex-role conflicts. They will have naturally identified with the mother early in life; therefore being characterized by a

feminine orientation. As the children grew older, the cultural environment in which they lived influenced the masculine role which they should assume. In an effort to fully achieve this masculine identification, the adolescent may become overly aggressive in his behavior while at the same time retain the more deeply rooted feminine role which was a covert learning process early in life.

For the girl, Leonard (1966) contended that sex-role identification was not as serious as for boys when there was no father present because the girl still had the same-sex parent with which to identify. On the other hand, father-absent girls appeared to be more dependent on their mothers than father-present girls. In addition, Leonard maintained that the father was a necessary agent of moral support to the young girl who had assumed her feminine sex-role from contact with her mother. That is, when the father was absent, she may have had little confidence in herself when she attempted to fill this role.

In conclusion, sex-role identification can be a difficult process for both male and female children. The problem can become very complicated and more confusing for the child who is trying to establish sexual identity in a home which is characterized by the absence of one of the identification models--in this case, the father.

The Relationship between Sex Role and Academic
Achievement of Children in a Broken Home

In reference to cognitive development, many studies (Samuels, 1943; McCarthy, 1954; Carlsmith, 1963) have depicted a correlation between aptitude scores and sex-role identification. Evidence was produced from a number of studies which clearly demonstrated that females were superior to males in Verbal areas, while males on the other hand were superior to females in Quantitative areas (particularly numerical reasoning) (Samuels, 1943; McCarthy, 1954). The findings suggested that superior ability in mathematics mirrors a masculine way of thinking and a relatively high verbal ability reflected a more feminine conceptual approach (Alpert, 1963; Milton, 1957; Whiting, 1960). In fact, Carlsmith (1963) purported that aptitude patterns were a useful index for the measurement of sex-role identity.

Achieving sex-role identity and its relationship to aptitude depended upon the family structure as to whether or not the family was intact, female based, or father based. Carlsmith (1963) produced evidence to show that the absence of the father was related to lower Mathematical ability and increased Verbal ability of both male and female children. Carlsmith also argued that the father's absence produced high anxiety, and this anxiety was a deteriorating effect on Mathematics and not Verbal skills. Contrary to this position was Alpert's (1957)

stand that while most of the anxiety scales correlated negatively with both aptitude scores, in all instances in which the data were significant, the correlations with Mathematical aptitude were in the same direction as those with verbal aptitude but never were they of high magnitude. However, Carlsmith (1963) tested anxiety and its affect upon Mathematic and Verbal scores finding that there existed a significant correlation between mathematics and anxiety but no significant correlation between anxiety and Verbal aptitude.

Not only did father-absence have an effect on cognitive and affective behavioral development of children, but the total family socialization experienced played an important part in the sibling's growth. Dynes, et al. (1956), found that unwantiness by parents and unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships with the family were related to high degrees of aspirations; and that parental wantiness and high parental attachment were related to low achievement.

On the other hand, Goode (1964) and McClelland (1961) stressed the importance of the mother in relationship to the child's achievement. In this instance, the mother who, in the socialization process, was demanding but trained for independence through permissiveness produced a high achieving child. Seemingly, the role of the father was unimportant as long as he had not attempted

to dominate the boy, for to do so lowered the child's achievement. Conversely, Bronfenbrenner (1961) argued that responsibility and leadership and academic achievement were maximized for boys whose fathers were strict disciplinarians and the source for emotional and affectual support came from the mother.

Birth Order (Family Structure, Personality, Need Affiliation, Anxiety, and Achievement)

The effects of birth order were widely researched during the last century in a variety of relationships. The results confirmed a definite role of birth order in influencing personality and behavior, but there remained a question of the degree of its influence. The following paragraphs will deal in depth with birth order in relation to intelligence and achievement, affiliation and withdrawal, and conformity, including a discussion on resulting differential behavior, such as aggression and schizophrenia.

Altus (1962) found that parents tended to put greater acceleratory pressures on the first child, hoping he would achieve in areas where they themselves had failed. With only adult models in the first crucial years, the child developed greater dependency needs than his later-born siblings. Inconsistent behavior of the parents further increased dependency. Schachter (1959) saw this need as the basis for affiliative behavior in firstborn

children. With the introduction of a second child into the family, Warren (1966) pointed out, the firstborn's freedom from sibling rivalry was immediately reversed. There was a sudden shift in roles, especially in respect to attention and affection. Lasko (1954) found parents to behave more warmly toward second children than first, but not because they were less anxious or protective. Lasko actually found more babying for younger children. The parents, now experienced, now relaxed in their role. Shrader and Leventhal (1968) noted that the socializing advantages of later-born children, because of the appropriate peer models provided by older siblings, were prominent. Reportedly, this gave the later-born child a closer example for understanding the complexities of their own world; and, the model also presented a challenge to compete. The second child also had the advantage of the more relaxed atmosphere, with fewer pressures and restrictions. This encouraged less dependency and greater self-confidence in the child.

Although there were several studies relating early birth order and intelligence, the evidence was equivocal. Schoonover (1959) found, over a 20 year period of giving the Stanford-Binet test and the Stanford Achievement test, that older and younger siblings had means of average difference very similar to each other. Findings, nevertheless, consistently pointed to higher

achievement on the part of the firstborn child (Chittenden, 1968 and Chopra, 1966). Altus (1965) reported that there was a greater number of firstborns in Who's Who in America; firstborns were overrepresented among the scientists; and more firstborns persisted beyond the baccalaureate level.

Schachter (1963, p. 764) concluded that it was not that "educated firstborns are more likely to become scientists and Rhodes scholars or to be eminent, creative, and productive than are educated later-borns," but simply that they were more likely to attend college and graduate school. Although firstborns were not disproportionate in high school in Schachter's study, there was a 12 percent surplus of firstborns at the college level, and a 21 percent surplus at the graduate level. Sampson (1965) suggested the greater parental attention and verbal stimulation given to the firstborn lead to higher intellectual development. He also suggested that overprotection of the firstborn might make him less creative than the more independent later-born child, although he may exhibit superiority in book studying.

Firstborns were clearly shown superior in high school grades in a 10 year study by Bradley and Sanborn (1969). The results were most significant for achievement of firstborn girls, reemphasizing the importance of the sex factor once again. Fischer, Cohen and Wells

(1968) discussed the sex factor further in their study of birth order in relation to expressed interest in becoming a college professor. This traditionally considered masculine career was pursued by firstborn women more than later-born women, and they generally presented altruistic reasons for their expressed interest. This distinction was not held for males. They concluded that greater cultural-familial eagerness for a firstborn male encouraged motivational-personal qualities which resembled those of the American male.

The importance of personality factors to achievement was brought out by Bradley and Sanborn (1969). Teachers, in identifying their students, gave the majority of the negative comments to second-born children. The authors suggested that firstborns attended more closely to the teacher, volunteered more, carried out assignments more conscientiously, impressed the teacher as more reliable and cooperative. This introduced the concept of need affiliation of firstborns.

Smith (1963) related achievement to need affiliation noting that firstborns functioned more successfully in later intellectual pursuits than later-borns. He ascribed this to their ability in situations where the value was determined by other people. Their greater "promise," as Smith saw it, was related to high levels of achievement motivation, adult orientation, and

susceptibility to external pressures. This gave them not an intellectual advantage but a social advantage for achievement. However, the possibility of economic opportunity for the oldest or only child cannot be ignored.

Although Sarason (1969) found anxiety combined with birth order significant in influencing performance (testing 80 males under stress, firstborns with high Test Anxiety Scores did worse in high achievement-orienting conditions), Gerard and Rabbie (1961) showed that stress leading to affiliative behavior was independent of birth position. The Gerard and Rabbie (1961) study supported part of Schachter's (1959) position. They found firstborn females under stress were more sensitive to stress and exhibited stronger affiliation desires than later-born females. They had not found the tendency of withdrawal among later-born females, however, nor had their findings held for males. Further, they identified this affiliative behavior as information-seeking as opposed to seeking companionship. In a stressful situation, lack of relevant information was an anxiety producing situation.

Schachter (1963) argued that greater affiliative and dependency needs in firstborns resulted in a higher degree of conformity. Sampson (1962) supplemented this research in three smaller studies, in which he found males more conforming, but Schmuck (1963), in an

investigation of the respective influences of sex of sibling and birth order in relation to conformity of girls, found girls with an older sister more conforming than second-born girls with a brother.

In contradiction to Schachter, Becker, Lerner, and Carroll (1964) and Helmreich, Kulken, and Collins (1968) found that the responsiveness of firstborns vs. later-borns to the behavior of others varied with the kind of situation, not because of greater anxiety or affiliative needs. Their findings showed firstborns depending on other people's support in a stressful situation (with large payoff conditions), but later-borns relying on others for validation of beliefs.

The best attempt to reconcile these conflicting reports seemed to be found in a study by Rhine (1968). The tendency for conformity, Rhine stated, was instrumental to affiliation because it was a means of avoiding feelings of alienation and rejection by the group. He added that independent judgment was not instrumental to achievement. In his experiment, when task instructions indicated no significant incentive for nonconformity (low-achievement arousal), firstborns conformed more than later-borns, supporting Schachter's hypothesis of dependency and affiliation. In contrast, when there was a choice between conformity and affiliation or nonconformity and achievement, firstborns resisted conformity

pressures more than later-borns, consistent with reports that firstborns had greater parental pressure to achieve and demonstrate greater needs for rewards associated with academic success and eminence. This complemented Sampson's findings. Becker's suggestion that firstborns conformed more to "normative" influence (low-achievement) but that later-borns conform more to "informational" influences was also explained.

A general picture emerged from the studies. The firstborn generally displayed a higher need for achievement, was conforming in low-achievement situations, affiliative and more dependent, and able to express anger outwardly. Later-borns generally had greater self-reliance and independence, but conformed to informational influences, seeking inward solutions to problems.

The Self-Concept in Self-Disclosure

Throughout time philosophers have pondered over the problem of why man is as he does. The concept of man as self was probably first discussed in the Principles by William James (1890). Since then there has been extensive research as to the meaning of the term self-concept in relation to self-expectation, self-reward, self-perception, self-disclosure, and an enumerable amount of other "self-isms." In psychological and educational studies the word "self" was used in a variety of ways. According to Ruth C. Wylie (1961) the term

self-concept commonly referred to the self as the individual. James Parker (1966, p. 691) defined self-concept as "an internal organization of the individual's perceptions about himself." The self-concept was also thought of as "an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness" (Wylie, 1961, p. 7), for it was composed of perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; and the value qualities which were perceived as associated with experiences and objects. The self-concept arose out of the complex of one's interpersonal relations and, according to Harry S. Sullivan (1953), was determined by the way one organized his disapproval, praise and blame, reward and punishment, the giving or withholding of love, especially by those people most significant in the individual's life.

A person's self-concept or the way he perceives himself has at least four dimensions according to Ruth Strang (1951): the self-concept proper, the transitory perception of self, the social self, and ideal self. The first dimension, the self-concept proper, was defined as the individual's perception of his abilities and his status and roles in the outer world, being influenced by his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming. Or, as Gordon W. Allport (1955, pp. 208-219)

said, "the self-image may be compulsive, compensatory, and unrealistic or it may be an insightful cognitive map closely geared to reality and defining a wholesome ambition." The second dimension of one's self-concept according to Strang was a transitory perception of self. This view of self was influenced by a mood of the moment or by some recent experience--a transitory attitude. The third dimension was the self as the person thinks others see it or as Strang called it, the social self. This concept "may not correspond with other people's perceptions of him; nevertheless it has an important effect on his behavior" (Strang, 1951, p. 71).

The ideal self or the self-ideal was the final dimension of the self-concept. Strant described this view as the kind of person the individual hoped to be or would have liked to be. According to Havighurst and MacDonald (1955), the development of the ideal self progressed through stages. There was an early stage in which the child identified with a parent or parent substitute; an intermediate stage which was somewhat unrealistic and was often omitted by some children; and a stage of identification with a young adult or imaginary character who had many admirable qualities.

According to Symonds (1951, p. 264), "the self as a percept is not present at birth but begins to develop gradually as perceptive powers develop." To understand

the self-concept one must realize that it is persistent. Lecky (1951, p. 102) went so far as to say that "preserving one's perception of one's self intact is the prime motive in all behavior." Mead (1952, p. 167) had gone on to say that the self was "essentially a social structure, and it arises in social experience." Changes in the self-concept were also brought about by the self-image, self-disclosure, self-reward, self-evaluation, and self-expectation. Brehm and Back (1968) found that people desire to change themselves when in distress, suggesting that feelings of self-inadequacy were associated with a willingness to seek external help.

The variables influencing the development of the self-concept were usually divided into two general categories: social interaction and body characteristics. The social interaction category was further broken down to include such variables as parent-child relationships, sex and role, peer interactions, and success and failure experiences. Social interaction as a whole had the greatest influence on the individual's self-concept, including interaction with all members of his intermediate environment (Manis, 1955; Allen and Bragg, 1968). The first of the social interactions was the parent-child relationship and how it affected the development of the self-concept. A good deal of research was done on the relationship between the child's evaluation of

himself and the parents' evaluation of him. Helper (1958) found that the mother was especially influential in the matter of the formation of the child's self-concept. Children having mothers with low levels of acceptance toward them possessed a lower self-acceptance. Manis (1958) found that college students who were well-adjusted expressed a perception of themselves as being like their parents, whereas, the poorly-adjusted students had not. Andrew Sopchak (1952), in his research, found a tendency toward the "psychotic triad" (schizophrenia, paranoia, psychasthenia) involving an unhealthy self-concept in young men who failed to properly identify with their fathers. This same fact was also found to be true of young women. Therefore, it seemed that a healthy self-concept requires both a positive identification with the father, and acceptance by the mother. On the other hand, a study conducted by Mary Thomes (1965) found that the father's absence from the family in a low socio-economic group had little or no effect on the child's self-concept.

The second variable was that of the sex role. Sex role reversal was found to be critical to the self-image disturbance (McClelland, Watt, 1968). The phenomena of assertive manner in schizophrenic females was also to be found in normal career women, implying a definite disturbance of the sensitive female manner. As a result, these women saw themselves as less feminine

because success for a woman was considered a feminine quality by our society (Horner, 1969).

The male, on the other hand, had a great deal of difficulty in establishing a satisfactory sex role in our culture, due to the way in which he saw the sex role of both parents, especially the mother. Beier and Ratzborg (1953) showed that a boy identifies with his father and then discovers his mother's role in relation to the father. Consequently, a weak father produced a boy who saw his mother as strong and masculine, which lead to a lack of masculine feelings in the boy.

The third variable was that of peer interactions. C. R. Rogers (in McIntyer, 1952, p. 624) considered relations with peers very important and felt it was encouraged by a healthy self-concept, "for the person who accepts himself will, because of this self-acceptance, have better interpersonal relations with others." His statement was supported by the findings of Charles McIntire's (1952) study of male college students and Hurlack's (1955) study concerning negativism and poor self-concept. Malcolm Helper (1958) also found, among young adolescents, that popular boys expressed a significantly higher degree of self-acceptance than the unpopular boys and was illustrated by subjects who thought relatively much higher of themselves than others tended to think of them.

The fourth variable was that of susceptibility to

persuasion. What was generally believed was that those persons with relatively strong feelings of personal inadequacy (or, a poor self-concept) depended on and were easily influenced by their environment to some degree, and Irving Janis (1955) confirmed the above hypothesis to be true.

The fifth variable was that of success and failure, and how it affected the self-concept. "The level of self-regard is learned through a combination of rewards and punishments for one's actions and self characteristics (Wylie, 1961, p. 184)." Success or failure at a task often determined how or whether a person will try the task again. People usually shied away from the things they were not good at doing. The student who found reading a slow and painful process usually endeavored to read as little as possible. This would, of course, have lead to poor performance in school and the student may have felt that he was inadequate although he could have learned to read if the process were not so painful.

The second variable influencing the development and characteristics of the self-concept was that of the body image. According to Mintz (1968), the changes in a person's body affected the way a person perceived himself, especially if he was unprepared for these changes. Physical growth acceleration was difficult enough for the adolescent, but the problem was compounded if growth was

extremely different from what was happening to the rest of the peer group. If the individual viewed the body as the "symbol of the self," then the psychological growing pains may be expected to undermine his self-regard, while highly valued body characteristics should have enhanced his self-regard.

Not only was self-concept and creativity (Villas-Boas, 1968), self-concept and grade point average (Lawrence, 1969) related but of high significance was the relation between self-concept and schizophrenia (Tamkin, 1957), alcoholism (Wahl), juvenile delinquency (Reckless & Dinitz, 1967) and self-disclosure. The self-concept was related to self-disclosure as was shown in Shapiro's study (1968). Those people with a low self-concept were far lower than those with high self-concepts in self-disclosure, lower in extraversion and higher in neuroticism. Conversely, those people with a high self-concept were higher in their self-disclosing ability, higher in extraversion, and low in neuroticism. And, each group's accuracy in judging their self-disclosing behavior was quite similar to their level of self.

Self-Disclosure

The term self-disclosure should be thought of in terms of complete individuality; that is, an act of an individual revealing his "self" to another person. However, in a more clinical sense self-disclosure is the

index of closeness of a relationship--affection, love, or trust--between two people (Jourard, 1959). This index of closeness within self-disclosure, as explained by Jourard, was determined, according to Shapiro (1968) in degree and amount, dependent upon the image of one's self-concept. That is, people who had a low self-concept would also have maintained a low self-disclosing ability with the converse also being true. In addition, woven into the Jourardian relationship between two people was the significance of other cathexis or the investment of emotional ties with an activity, object, or idea. Shapiro, of course, explained the amount of emotional significance present within the relationship as dependent upon the force behind the self-concept projection as well as the amount of self-disclosure produced by one individual toward another. Self-disclosure not only depended upon emotional cathexis but also body cathexis (Jourard, 1959). The questions which arose were: How do people feel about their bodies? How do people feel about seeing and touching another's body? Does body contact reduce the distance between two people? The explanation and answer to these questions lie, of course, within one's view of his own self-concept. There was not an abundance of research concerning the topic of self-disclosure and the reasons were many. People do not enjoy discussing themselves or revealing themselves, for the act forces the

individual to undergo self-analysis. "No man fully knows another, for no human being ever fully discloses himself, even to his closest intimates (Jourard, 1958, p. 77)."

When one has assumed the responsibility of studying self-disclosure, he was forced to disclose himself and, this willingness or reluctance reflects the culture of his society, his individual personality, and some fundamental characteristics of human nature in general (Ibid., p. 77).

As the Jourard and Lasakow Self-disclosure Questionnaire will be used in the present research project, only studies pertaining to, and qualifying the instrument were reviewed. Results of such studies, in the main, led Jourard (1959) to infer that the "amount of personal information that one person was willing to disclose to another person appeared to be an index of the 'closeness' of the relationship and of the affection, love or trust that prevailed between two people." Jourard had not only discovered that a relationship existed, but that the relationship was usually slow in development, not only in acceleration but also in the amount of information disclosed (Jourard & Landsman, 1960).

Further research was conducted by such investigators as Fitzgerald (1963), Robbins (1966), and Munz and Diamond (1967) dealing with the relationship between self-disclosure and self-esteem, group cohesiveness, and birth order respectively. Each of the researchers were

able to establish a significant relationship between self-disclosure and the variables under investigation. Munz and Diamond had drawn the conclusion that later-born children self-disclosed more about themselves than first-borns, indicating that these children were more socially dexterous. In the Fitzgerald study (1963) it was concluded that those who were highest in self-esteem would also disclose more to the allotted target persons. Similar results were evidenced by Shapiro (1968).

Jenkin and Oberlander (1967) investigated and found that later-borns were subordinate to firstborns in academic achievement. Further evidence for this hypothesis was presented by Munz, Letchworth, and Smouse (1968), Chopra (1966) and Chittenden (1968). One could therefore assume that those firstborn children who had higher academic scores disclosed less about themselves than later-borns of lower academic achievement. However, it cannot be assumed that later-borns who disclosed more, no matter the reason for this self-disclosure, would become an index for lower academic achievement. A further assumption that could not be drawn was that later-born children who were low achievers but disclosed most, and were of female based homes wherein the mother had been demanding but trained for independence through permissiveness (Carlsmith, 1963), should become somewhat equal in academic achievement with firstborn children who

disclosed less and were superior in academic achievement.

All self-disclosure studies undertaken have not proven significant in the relationship between self-disclosure and such variables as neuroticism (Stanley & Bownes, 1966), peer nomination (Himmelstein & Lubin, 1965), and self-introduction (Himmelstein & Kimbrough, 1963). Although it was not uncommon to discover ambiguities and conflicts in present research findings, the problem existed within the conclusiveness of the findings.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Introduction

The data collected from the 180 parents, not freshman college students, who completed the Jourard and Lasakow Self-Disclosure Questionnaire, were coded and placed on I.B.M. cards. The questionnaire scale had four statement ratings (0, 1, 2, X) all of which were applicable in rating the "target person" in terms of amount of self-disclosure. A S's total self-disclosure score and his individual target person disclosure score only took into account those ratings 1 and 2. Ratings 0 and X were not used as they did not add to the total amount of a S's self-disclosure.

Statistical Analysis of Self-Disclosure Scores of the Divorce Versus Non-Divorce Group

The first step in analyzing the data involved the construction of a matrix which revealed the overall frequency distribution and the mean of the questionnaire disclosure scores (see Table 3). Total disclosure was

TABLE 3

CELL FREQUENCIES AND MEANS FOR THE SELF-DISCLOSURE
QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES BY SEX(S), BIRTH ORDER(B),
TARGET PERSON(T), AND LENGTH OF DIVORCE(D)

		<u>Divorce Group</u>							
		Mo		Fa		MF		FF	
			s.d.		s.d.		s.d.		s.d.
D ₁	Male	B ₁ n=10	73.70 25.65	36.20 17.80	50.90 28.47	49.80 16.49			
		B ₂ n=4	40.50 39.63	67.50 11.69	46.00 25.70	53.50 26.05			
	Female	B ₁ n=11	64.45 28.02	38.90 30.66	81.45 31.11	77.72 11.10			
		B ₂ n=8	57.75 23.18	22.48 21.02	62.25 21.82	62.25 27.22			
D ₂	Male	B ₁ n=9	78.11 23.27	46.66 27.13	59.77 25.54	62.32 29.09			
		B ₂ n=7	52.24 17.75	35.00 33.39	59.85 17.97	47.00 23.08			
	Female	B ₁ n=10	72.20 22.35	42.30 30.82	69.20 26.16	75.80 33.22			
		B ₂ n=5	70.40 12.94	25.80 21.05	73.40 26.60	96.60 40.39			
D ₃	Male	B ₁ n=7	54.28 9.12	32.28 22.61	63.14 23.61	37.00 14.42			
		B ₂ n=6	43.33 15.33	30.83 23.10	59.16 17.02	53.83 19.18			
	Female	B ₁ n=8	53.25 19.44	18.87 20.10	60.50 25.83	50.37 35.39			
		B ₂ n=5	56.20 31.28	5.20 6.76	52.00 6.54	58.00 60.80			
		<u>Non-Divorce Group</u>							
		Mo		Fa		MF		FF	
			s.d.		s.d.		s.d.		s.d.
Male	B ₁ n=23	60.34 22.67	59.30 21.73	61.65 20.43	54.78 25.59				
	B ₂ n=13	65.61 16.52	63.30 19.68	72.69 22.26	72.92 31.32				
Female	B ₃ n=26	66.38 24.35	52.84 19.63	62.50 17.90	68.12 22.29				
	B ₄ n=28	72.41 22.62	56.39 26.14	67.00 25.04	69.07 21.57				

greater for the non-divorce group than for the divorce group, and their respective means were proportional to this standing. The F test for determining significant differences was used. Henceforth, the remaining part of the study tested the hypothesis that the mean of self-disclosure scores of the non-divorce group was equal to the mean of self-disclosure scores of the divorce group and from which the remaining hypotheses were derived. A probability level of $p < .05$ was used but statistically significant results that exceeded $p = .05$ were also reported. The results of all analyses of variance were reported in Table 4.

The (C-1) main effect of a contrast in amount of self-disclosure between the divorce and non-divorce groups was statistically significant ($F = 10.65$, 1 df, $< .01$). In order to have determined the specific area in which the differences lay, between the two groups, a further analysis of variance was constructed on the remaining main effects (S-1, B-1, T-1). A modified orthogonal analysis was also computed over the (C-1) main effect to determine the differences between T_{C_1} and T_{C_5} , T_{C_2} and T_{C_6} , T_{C_3} and T_{C_7} , and/or T_{C_4} and T_{C_8} .

Upon contrasting the amount of self-disclosure projected toward the mother target person of the divorce group with that amount projected upon the mother target person of the non-divorce group, a non-significant F

TABLE 4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE OF THE EFFECTS OF
BIRTH ORDER, SEX, AND LENGTH OF DIVORCE ON
THE ABILITY TO SELF-DISCLOSE

A. Divorce Versus Non-Divorce

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F ^a	p
Sex(S)	1	128.84	1.39	n.s.
Birth Order(B)	1	4.79	.05	n.s.
Marital Status(C)	1	990.48	10.65	<.01
T _{Mother} _C div vs T _{Mother} _C non-div	1	1,433.69	.74 ^b	n.s.
T _{Father} _C div vs T _{Father} _C non-div	1	29,568.05	15.23 ^b	<.01
T _{Male Friend} _C div vs T _{Male Friend} _C non-div	1	191,036.08	98.37 ^b	<.01
T _{Female Friend} _C div vs T _{Female Friend} _C non-div	1	187,500.00	96.58 ^b	<.01
Error	172	1,942.05		
Target Person(T)	3	778.67	1.05	n.s.
SxB	1	102.62	.05	n.s.
SxC	1	88.78	1.00	n.s.
SxT	3	115.99	.16	n.s.
BxC	1	414.13	4.45	<.01
B ₁ divC ₁ vs B ₁ non-divC ₁	1	5,396.61	2.77 ^b	n.s.
B ₂ divC ₂ vs B ₂ non-divC ₂	1	96,262.80	49.51 ^b	<.01
Error	172	1,942.06		
(C-1) Div vs Non-Div for B ₁	1	5,459.60	2.81	<.01
Div vs Non-Div for B ₂	1	96,268.81	49.47	<.01
(B-1) B for Div	1	23,316.60	11.49	<.01
B for Non-Div	1	13,495.18	96.94 ^b	<.01
Error	172	1,942.05		
BxT	3	56.71	.08	n.s.
CxT	3	225.87	.30	n.s.
SxBxC	1	15,524.54	.43	n.s.
SxBxT	3	19.99	.04	n.s.
SxCxT	3	76.12	.10	n.s.
BxCxT	3	36.38	.05	n.s.
SxBxCxT	3	664.10	.89	n.s.
Error for S,B,C,SxB,SxC,BxC,SxBxC	172	1,042.05		
Error for T,SxT,BxT,CxT,SxBxT,SxCxT, BxCxT,SxBxCxT	516	15,524.54		

^aF corrected for unequal cell frequencies, repeated measures, and nester variable.

^bF corrected for unequal cell frequencies only.

TABLE 4 (CONT)

B. Non-Divorce

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F ^a	p
Sex(S)	1	1.09	.02	n.s.
Birth Order(B)	1	179.09	3.21	n.s.
Target Person(T)	3	66.79	.076	n.s.
SxB	1	57.99	1.04	n.s.
SxT	3	37.84	.04	n.s.
BxT	3	6.28	.007	n.s.
SxBxT	3	8.93	.01	n.s.
Error for S,B,SxB	86	1,146.32		
Error for T,SxT,BxT,SxBxT	258	15,116.41		

^aF corrected for unequal cell frequencies, repeated measures, and nester variable.

C. Divorce Group

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F ^a	p
Sex(S)	1	215.67	1.44	
Birth Order(B)	1	120.95	.81	
Divorce Length(D)	2	862.36	5.72	<.01
D _{C1} vs D _{C2}	1	1,462.40	1.22 ^b	n.s.
D _{C1} vs D _{C3}	1	28,583.73	27.82 ^b	<.01
T _{motherC1} vs T _{motherC5}	1	1,733.99	1.69 ^b	n.s.
T _{fatherC2} vs T _{fatherC6}	1	832.56	.81 ^b	n.s.
T _{male friendC3} vs T _{male friendC7}	1	41.82	.04 ^b	n.s.
T _{female friendC4} vs T _{female friendC8}	1	2,676.96	2.61 ^b	n.s.

TABLE 4 (CONT)

C. Divorce Group (Cont)

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F ^a	p
D _{C2} vs D _{C3}	1	41,668.30	40.55	<.01
T _{motherC1} vs T _{motherC5}	1	1,758.79	1.71	n.s.
T _{fatherC2} vs T _{fatherC6}	1	168.22	.16	n.s.
T _{male friendC3} vs T _{male friendC7}	1	168.82	.16	n.s.
T _{female friendC4} vs. T _{female friendC8}	1	5,311.38	5.17	<.01
Error	78	1,027.53		
Target Person(T)	3	2,120.38	8.42	<.01
T _{motherC1} vs T _{fatherC2}	1	39,753.47	23.10 ^b	<.01
T _{motherC1} vs T _{male friendC3}	1	240.00	.14 ^b	n.s.
T _{motherC1} vs T _{female friendC4}	1	3.75	.002 ^b	n.s.
T _{fatherC2} vs T _{male friendC3}	1	46,176.05	26.83 ^b	<.01
T _{fatherC2} vs T _{female friendC4}	1	38,984.45	22.65 ^b	<.01
T _{male friendC3} vs T _{female friendC4}	1	304.20	.18 ^b	n.s.
Error	234	1,720.80		
SxB	1	218.31	1.45	n.s.
SxD	2	242.78	1.62	n.s.
SxT	3	704.36	2.80	<.01
S _{malesC1} vs S _{femalesC5}	1	201.36	.12 ^b	n.s.

TABLE 4 (CONT)

C. Divorce Group (Cont)

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F ^a	p
$S_{males_{C_2}}$ vs $S_{females_{C_6}}$	1	620.18	.36 ^b	n.s.
$S_{males_{C_3}}$ vs $S_{females_{C_7}}$	1	3,459.55	2.01 ^b	n.s.
$S_{males_{C_4}}$ vs $S_{females_{C_8}}$	1	8,029.37	4.66 ^b	<.01
Error (S-1)	234	1,720.80		
S for mother	1	201.36	.12 ^b	n.s.
S for father	1	620.18	.36 ^b	n.s.
S for male friend	1	3,459.55	2.01 ^b	n.s.
S for female friend	1	8,029.37	4.66 ^b	<.01
Error (T-1)	234	1,720.80		
T for male	3	5,734.67	3.33 ^b	<.01
T for female	3	17,923.67	10.42 ^b	<.01
Error	234	1,720.80		
BxD	2	34.08	.23	n.s.
BxT	3	146.81	.58	n.s.
DxT	6	80.69	.32	n.s.
SxBxD	2	41.65	.28	n.s.
SxBxT	6	70.03	.28	n.s.
SxDxT	6	68.34	.27	n.s.
BxDxT	3	191.30	.76	n.s.
SxBxDxT	6	95.32	.39	n.s.
Error for S, B, D, SxD, BxD	78	1,027.53		
Error for T, SxT, BxT, DxT, SxBxT, SxDxT, SxBxDxT	234	1,720.90		

^aF corrected for unequal cell frequencies, repeated measures, and nested variable.

^bF corrected for unequal cell frequencies.

ratio resulted ($F = .74$, 1 df , n.s.). Therefore, what was assumed was that freshman college students of the divorce family disclose as much about the self to the mother as did freshman college students of the non-divorce family situation. In turn, one could not assume that the absence or presence of the father in the home in any way altered the amount of self-disclosure projected on to the mother.

Through contrasting the differences in the amount of freshman college student self-disclosure between the father of the divorce home and the father of the non-divorce home netted a highly significant F ratio ($F = 15.23$, 1 df , $p < .01$). The differences in the amount of self-disclosure to the fathers of both groups contributed to the statistically significant difference of the (C-1) main effect. The respective means (see Table 3) of T_{C_2} versus T_{C_5} and from the significant F ratio showed more disclosure by freshman college students toward the father of the intact family than to the father of the divorce family.

Through contrasting the amount of self-disclosure of Ss of divorce homes toward a male friend with the total self-disclosure toward a male friend of Ss from a non-divorce home a highly significant F ratio was found ($F = 98.37$, 1 df , $p = < .01$). That is, the subjects of one group (divorce or non-divorce) self-disclosed more

to a male friend than did the Ss of the other group. In looking at the respective means of each group (\bar{X}_{MF} Div 54.45, \bar{X}_{MF} Non-Div 65.16) the greater amount of self-disclosure toward the male friend was found within the non-divorce home. Of course, the differences were overall differences and could not be made as to whether or not the differences were due to sex or birth order. Neither could the occurrence of the differences be explained.

Upon contrasting total disclosure scores toward the female friend target person of both groups a highly significant F ratio was obtained ($F = 98.08$, 1 df, $p = < .01$). It was found that the total self-disclosure toward the female friend target person was greater for one group than the other. In looking at the respective means of each group (\bar{X}_{FF} Div 60.68, \bar{X}_{FF} Non-Div 65.70) it was found that there was greater total self-disclosure toward the female friend of the non-divorced home than of the divorced home, irrespective of birth order and sex. The differences between the amounts of self-disclosure projected upon the female friend target person of both groups contributed to the overall (C-1) main effect.

In testing for the differences between the sex variable of both groups, no statistically significant differences were found in the amount of total self-disclosure toward the "target person" variable ($F = 1.39$,

1 df , n.s.). Upon finding no statistically significant differences between sexes of the divorce group versus the non-divorce group, the null hypothesis that males of both groups disclosed relatively the same amount as did females was accepted.

No statistically significant difference was found in the amount of self-disclosure between the birth orders of the divorce and non-divorce families combined ($F = .051$, 1 df , n.s.). The null hypothesis, birth order one Ss of the divorce versus non-divorce group combined disclosed as much about the "self" to some target person(s) as did second borns of the divorce versus non-divorce home combined, was accepted. The differences that were present between the birth order variable of both groups did not contribute to the overall significant F ratio of the (C-1) main effect.

Statistically significant differences were not found in the amount of self-disclosure among the four categories of the target person variable, for the divorce versus non-divorce group combined ($F = 1.05$, 3 df , n.s.). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there was as much self-disclosure to the mother, father, male friend, female friend target persons by freshman college students of divorce versus non-divorce homes combined was accepted. The differences that existed had not accounted for the overall (C-1) main effect statistically significant

difference.

The analysis of variance upon the main effects found that (S-1), (B-1), and/or (T-1) were not significant enough to add to the (C-1) statistically significant difference. A modified orthogonal analysis found exactly wherein the (C-1) differences lay. The reported differences were within the target person father, male friend, and female friend.

Out of all possible interaction effects of the divorce group versus the non-divorce group only one first order interaction was found significant. That variable was birth order. In having computed an analysis of variance to determine the existence of interaction between birth order one of both groups combined, and their total disclosure scores, with birth order two and their total disclosure scores, a significant F ratio was found ($F = 4.46$, 1 df, $p = < .01$). Therefore, there was interaction between birth order one of each group and birth order two of each group, and the null hypothesis that no interaction existed between the birth orders of the divorce group versus the non-divorce group was untenable. As a significant interaction was found the non-significant (B-1) main effect had to be qualified. A modified orthogonal analysis was run to see if the differences lay within the combined birth orders of each group. A test of simple effects was also set up to see if there

were differences between birth order one and two of the divorce group, and between birth order one and two of the non-divorce group.

Testing for simple effects resulted in a statistically significant F ratio ($F = 11.49$, 1 df , $p = < .01$) between birth order one and birth order two Ss of the divorce group and between birth order one and birth order two Ss of the non-divorce group ($F = 96.94$, 1 df , $p = < .01$). It was then concluded that the non-significant birth order main effect should be ignored because differences were revealed. Ss who were from the non-divorce group and of the second birth order were disclosing more than birth order one subjects. Conversely, birth order one Ss of the divorce group were disclosing more than birth order two Ss.

The contrast between birth order one of the divorce group and birth order one of the non-divorce group showed a non-significant F ratio ($F = 2.77$, 1 df , n.s.). Birth order one Ss of the non-divorce group had not disclose any more about the self than had Ss of birth one from the divorce group. A significant F ratio between the birth order two groups of the divorce and non-divorce Ss in their ability to self-disclose resulted in a statistically significant F ratio ($F = 49.51$, 1 df , $p = < .01$). With the significant contrast between birth order two Ss of both groups, sufficient

differences were produced for the interaction between the birth orders of the divorced group versus the birth orders of the non-divorced group in the Ss total ability to self-disclose. The difference between the birth order twos', of course, supplied more evidence to back up the occurrence or difference in self-disclosure of the birth order twos' of the divorce group and non-divorce group individually. No other statistically significant higher order interactions among the variables of sex, target person, birth order of the divorce versus non-divorce group combined were found.

For the three main effects of the non-divorce group statistically non-significant F ratios were found. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between total self-disclosure scores of males and females, birth order one and two Ss, target persons was tenable ($F = .02$, 1 df , n.s.; $F = 3.21$, 1 df , n.s.; and $F = .076$, 3 df , n.s.). Whether or not these non-significant differences and occurrences, within each main effect, was part of the divorce group was not to be known until an analysis was conducted upon that group.

In testing for statistically significant interactions between sex and birth order, sex and target person, and birth order and target person, total self-disclosure of freshman college students from a non-divorce home, non-significant F ratios were obtained

($F = 1.04$, 1 df , n.s.; $F = .043$, 3 df , n.s.; $F = .007$, 3 df , n.s. respectively). Therefore, the null hypothesis that no interaction had taken place between sex and birth order, sex and target person, and birth order and target person, was found tenable. Once again, the projection of the non-significant occurrences of the interaction of the above said variables was not made on to the divorce group until an analysis over that group was computed.

In computing an analysis of variance over sex, birth order, and target person for third order interaction in terms of total self-disclosure, a non-significant F ratio was found ($F = .01$, 3 df , n.s.) and the null hypothesis was accepted.

In having tested for statistically significant differences, in the ability to self-disclose, between male and female Ss from the divorced group, a non-significant F ratio was attained ($F = 1.44$, 1 df , n.s.). Therefore, the null hypothesis wherein males disclosed as much as females was found tenable. Also, it was evident that non-significant differences between males and females of the non-divorce group also occurred within the divorce group, without any accompanying circumstances or influences. This particular position added further evidence to collaborate the non-significant F ratio (S-1) which was produced in the overall analysis

of variance comparing both groups simultaneously.

There was evidence of sex differences in the divorce group through an association with target person self-disclosure scores ($F = 2.80, 3 \text{ df}, < .01$). The first order interaction null hypothesis which stated a non-significant interaction between sex and target person was not found tenable. There was a difference in the amount of the total self-disclosure among the target person variable according to the sex of the Ss. The occurrences that took place within the other first order effects did not take place within the (S-1) (T-1) interaction or visa versa, and that these occurrences had not taken place within the non-divorce group. In order to seek information as to where these interactions lay a means' matrix was constructed (see Table 5). However, statistically significant differences were determined through the use of a modified orthogonal analysis over the (S-1) (T-1) first order effect in addition to testing for simple effects. A modified orthogonal contrast showed that there was a difference between male and female self-disclosure scores toward a female friend ($F = 4.66, 1 \text{ df}, < .01$) and a test for simple effects showed that females more than males were disclosing the most to a female friend ($F = 10.42, 3 \text{ df}, < .01$). The remaining non-significant F ratios are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 5

MATRIX OF MEANS OF TARGET PERSON
DISCLOSURE BY SEX

	Mo	Fa	MF	FF
Male (n=43)	$\bar{X} = 58.98$	$\bar{X} = 34.00$	$\bar{X} = 46.91$	$\bar{X} = 50.81$
Female (n=47)	$\bar{X} = 62.81$	$\bar{X} = 28.75$	$\bar{X} = 69.32$	$\bar{X} = 69.72$

A statistically non-significant difference in the ability of birth order one and birth order two Ss to self-disclose to the target person variable was produced after having computed the analysis of variance ($F = .81$, 1 df, n.s.). The null hypothesis that birth order one Ss disclosed as much as birth order two Ss was found tenable. Also, those occurrences which accompanied the non-significant difference between birth orders of the non-divorce group were also non-significant for the divorce group. A computed, non-significant difference between the birth orders of the divorce and non-divorce group contributed further evidence to support the non-significant F ratio position of the overall analysis of variance for (B-1) divorce versus (B-1) non-divorce.

In having tested for statistically significant differences of the ability to self-disclose among Ss from the various divorce length home situations, significant F ratio was computed ($F = 5.72$, 2 df, n.s.). Therefore,

the null hypothesis that subjects from a home situation broken by 1-4 years divorce disclosed as much as did subjects from divorced homes of 5-10 years and 11 plus years was not found tenable. In addition, it was obvious that those occurrences and their accompanying circumstances in the divorce group were not to be found in the non-divorce group. The hypothesis was then formulated that subjects of the three divorce categories disclosed differently in total amounts of self-disclosure. Seeking the whereabouts of the differences among the three divorce lengths was approached.

The first step in further analyzing the data was the computation of a modified orthogonal analysis over the (D-1) components. In comparing divorce one with divorce two \underline{Ss} , a statistically non-significant F ratio resulted ($F = 1.22, 1 \text{ df}, \text{n.s.}$). Therefore, no statistically significant differences were found in the ability of \underline{Ss} to self-disclose who were from either a home of 1-4 years of divorce (D_1) or 5-10 years of divorce (D_2).

On the other hand, a modified orthogonal analysis computed over divorce one versus divorce three and divorce two versus divorce three netted a statistically significant difference ($F = 27.82, 1 \text{ df}, p = < .01$). The conclusion was drawn that those circumstances accompanying the statistically significant differences of the divorce one group versus the divorce three group also accompanied

the divorce two group versus divorce three group in terms of the Ss ability to self-disclose. In having constructed a means' matrix it was found that divorce one and two subjects self-disclose to the target person variable more than Ss from the divorce three length home (see Table 6).

TABLE 6

MATRIX OF MEANS OF TOTAL SELF-DISCLOSURE SCORES FOR D_1 , D_2 , and D_3 Ss BY TARGET PERSONS

D_1 (1-4 yrs divorce)	D_2 (5-10 yrs divorce)	D_3 (11 plus yrs divorce)
$\bar{X} = 216.36$	$\bar{X} = 239.26$	$\bar{X} = 196.58$
$\bar{X}_{Mo} = 60.30$	$\bar{X}_{Mo} = 66.81$	$\bar{X}_{Mo} = 51.80$
$\bar{X}_{Fa} = 30.18$	$\bar{X}_{Fa} = 39.00$	$\bar{X}_{Fa} = 23.73$
$\bar{X}_{MF} = 63.27$	$\bar{X}_{MF} = 65.03$	$\bar{X}_{MF} = 61.57$
$\bar{X}_{FF} = 62.61$	$\bar{X}_{FF} = 68.42$	$\bar{X}_{FF} = 59.42$

The problem then became one of finding within the target person variable where the differences existed; that is, between mother versus mother, father versus father, male friend versus male friend and/or female friend versus female friend. Significant differences were found between D_2 and D_3 within the area of the female friend target person variable, after having computed a modified orthogonal analysis ($F = 5.17$, 1 d.f., $p = < .05$). Ss of the D_2 level disclosed more to female friends than Ss of the D_3 level. See Table 4 for overall analysis of variance

reference for the remaining contrasts.

In contrasting the four target persons of the D_1 with the four target persons of D_3 individually statistically non-significant F ratios were netted (mother contrast: $F = 1.69$, 1 df , n.s.; father contrast: $F = .81$, 1 df , n.s.; male friend contrast: $F = .04$, 1 df , n.s.; female friend contrast: $F = 2.61$, 1 df , n.s.). Therefore, the differences existed within a combination of the target person disclosure scores for both the D_1 and D_3 groups. However, paired comparisons of target person self-disclosure ability scores were beyond the scope of the analysis, and further computations were not required.

For the target person main effect a statistically significant F ratio existed ($F = 8.42$, 3 df , $p = < .01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there was as much self-disclosure of Ss from the divorce group toward mother, father, male friend, and female friend was not found tenable. There was more self-disclosure to one (or more) target persons than for other subjects who had come from a divorce home situation. It was also apparent that what occurred in the divorce home concerning target person disclosure had not occurred within target person self-disclosure of the non-divorce home. The issue then became one of seeking the probable area wherein the differences existed.

A matrix of means was constructed to seek information as to where the differences in the target person variable lay (see Table 7). From the matrix it was found that Ss, regardless of birth order, sex, and divorce level, self-disclosed less to father target person variable than to any other target person. Although the mean of the father target person was somewhat less than the other target person means, a modified orthogonal analysis was computed to see if the differences were statistically significant.

TABLE 7

SELF-DISCLOSURE \bar{X} SCORES OF TARGET PERSONS MOTHER,
FATHER, MALE FRIEND, AND FEMALE FRIEND FOR
Ss FROM THE DIVORCE GROUP

Mother	Father	Male Friend	Female Friend
$\bar{X} = 60.98$	$\bar{X} = 31.03$	$\bar{X} = 63.39$	$\bar{X} = 63.99$

The F ratio for the contrasts of target person mother of the divorce group versus target person male friend and female friend and target person male friend versus target person female friend netted statistically non-significant differences ($F = .14$, 1 d f , n.s.; $F = .002$, 1 d f , n.s.; $F = .18$, 1 d f , n.s. respectively). The assumption was then made that there were no differences in the amount of self-disclosure produced by Ss of the divorce group to target persons mother, male

friend, and female friend. However, this occurrence was not tenable for the amount of self-disclosure projected toward the father in comparison to the rest of the target persons. Through inspecting the means' table (see Table 7), and the contrast's table (see Table 4), the differences were readily recognized. The amount of self-disclosure toward the father was lower than toward the other target persons as shown by the highly significant F ratios (target persons mother vs. father: $F = 23.10$, 1 df , $p = < .01$; target person father vs. male friend: $F = 26.83$, 1 df , $p = < .01$; target person father vs. female friend: $F = 22.65$, 1 df , $p = < .01$ respectively). The null hypothesis which stated that the amount of self-disclosure projected on to the four target persons by Ss from the divorce group was equal was not found tenable.

After having computed appropriate analysis over the variables of higher order interaction, all but one effect resulted in statistically non-significant F ratios. The statistically significant interaction of sex X target person was reported under the sex main effect (p. 57).

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The major purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship particular independent variables might have had on the self-disclosing ability of freshman college students from a female-based home. Emphasis was also placed on the relative birth order of the subjects in their ability to disclose to certain target persons. Self-disclosure was explained according to Jourard (1958) as the ability of an individual to relate himself to another person, and the degree to which this relationship was established.

The following hypotheses were set up in null form to predict statistically non-significant differences and interactions between and among the independent variables:

- 1) There is no difference in the amount of self-disclosure projected by a freshman college student of the divorce and non-divorce group combined, and the divorce and non-divorce group separately, upon target persons mother, father, male friend and female friend. As each difference and interaction includes the divorce and non-divorce group combined and both groups separately, the remainder of the

predictions will only state the difference and/or interaction. 2) There is no difference in the amount of self-disclosure by freshman college students according to sex of the subject. 3) There is no difference in the amount of self-disclosure by freshman college students according to the relative birth order of the subject. 4) There is no difference in the amount of self-disclosure by freshman college students of the female-based home according to length of divorce. (Hypothesis Four is applicable only to the divorce group.) 5) Interactions of sex, target person, and birth order on the first, second, and third level of interaction are statistically non-significant. (Number 5 is applicable to the non-divorce and divorce group combined and the non-divorce group separately.) 6) Interaction of sex, target person, divorce level, and birth order on the first, second, and third level of interaction are statistically non-significant. (Number 6 is applicable only to the divorce group.) 7) The logical equivalents of 5 and 6 are also statistically non-significant.

For the present comparative study 90 subjects were selected for the non-divorce group through the process of random sampling from 4800 freshman students at the University of Oklahoma. The 90 subjects for the divorce group represented the entire freshman student body whose parents were divorced and remained unmarried.

Subjects for both groups represented and maintained the status of being a freshman student and unmarried. The instrument used to measure the degree of closeness an individual establishes with another was the Jourard and Lasakow Self-Disclosure Questionnaire.

Analysis of the data confirmed hypothesis one of the main effects for the non-divorce versus divorce group combined, and the non-divorce group separately. The hypothesis was not tenable for the divorce group. Prediction number two was found tenable for all three analyses (i.e., no sex differences). The hypothesis dealing with birth order was found tenable for the main effect analysis of all three groups. However, testing for birth order interaction of both groups combined, the main effect was invalidated, as a difference had existed between birth order one and two of the divorce and non-divorce groups. Hypothesis number four, which applied only to the divorce group was not found tenable as a difference did exist among the three divorce levels. Those hypotheses dealing with the interaction and association of the independent variables upon the dependent variable were found tenable, except for divorce level X target person within the divorce group.

Results of the significant interactions Birth Order X Error and Divorce Level X Target Person were interpreted in terms of adjustment, sex role identification

and fear. The extent to which a freshman college student disclosed the self to some target person was altered according to relative birth order and divorce level of the family unit. However, birth order one subjects of the divorce home disclosed more than did birth order two subjects. Also, divorce length three subjects of the divorce home disclosed less to a female friend than did the other two divorce level subjects; but all three divorce length subjects disclosed about the same to the mother, father, and male friend. In addition, the presence or absence of the father had not, in general, significantly accelerated or retarded the self-disclosing ability of a freshman college student who was from a divorce or non-divorce home situation.

Discussion

Twelve specific hypotheses were derived from a theory that the ability of freshman college students to disclose the self or establish a certain degree of closeness to certain target persons, concerning six areas of personal behavior, would not differ in amount for those of a divorce or non-divorce home. In addition, the theory hypothesized that the birth order and sex status of the Ss would not alter the self-disclosing ability of the freshman college student toward the four target persons.

Hypothesis one predicted there would be no

difference in the amount of self-disclosure displayed toward each target person. The hypothesis applied for each of the three analyses: 1) over the divorce versus non-divorce group combined; 2) over the divorce group; and 3) over the non-divorce group. As indicated in the results section of Chapter III, the analysis of variance over the divorce group versus non-divorce group combined netted a non-significant F ratio. It was, therefore, concluded that the amount of self-disclosure for the 180 freshman college students did not significantly differ in amount given to each target person. The same result was found tenable for the non-divorce group analysis. No single target person gained any greater degree of closeness than any other target person for each shared equally in the amount of disclosure revealed by the Ss.

However, the phenomenon did not hold true for the divorce group, as a statistically significant F ratio was found. As indicated in Chapter III, the amount of self-disclosure projected by those 90 subjects of the divorce group was a lesser amount on to the father than on to each remaining target person. Reasoning behind the phenomenon lay with the non-occurrence or absence of the father--an occurrence which had not happened within the non-divorce group situation. Although some self-disclosure was projected on to the father of the divorce group, the amount generally given the father (as in the non-divorce

situation) was not distributed among the remaining target persons; nor was this excess self-disclosure added to any one target person's score. One would have expected the excess amount of self-disclosure to be projected on to one of the remaining target persons; wherein the absence of the father establishes a closer bond between the child and another individual, regardless of whether or not the bond was in the form of an oedipal attachment, sex role identification, peer group association, and the like. Neither can it be assumed that the lack of a father within a home forced the child to seek identification and companionship with another male person. If he had done so, the amount of self-disclosure would have been greater for the male friend. This was not the case. Neither can it be assumed that if the mother had distorted the father's previous image by stating that all men are bad, would have increased the subjects' amount of self-disclosure toward the mother or female friend. Again this was not the case. To make such assumptions would merely be speculative.

All that can be said concerning the differences in amount of self-disclosure toward the target person variable of the divorce group is that upon and after the departure of the father the amount of self-disclosure, or the degree of closeness held by the student with another target person, was not altered. Within a divorce home situation, and for reasons unknown to the present study,

the position once held by the father is and was of no consequence to the amount disclosure projected upon other target persons.

Hypothesis two predicted that the amount of self-disclosure between males and females would not differ. The hypothesis applied to all three analyses: 1) over the divorce group versus non-divorce group combined, 2) over the non-divorce group, and 3) over the divorce group.

The hypothesis was found tenable for the overall analysis and for the non-divorce group analysis; but was not found tenable for the divorce group analysis because a significant sex X target person interaction was netted. The (S-1) main effect for the divorce group was disregarded as a non-significant F ratio provided a basis for a theory wherein amounts of self-disclosure for males and females did not generally differ. That is, males were able to establish the same interpersonal relationships with certain individuals as were females--a position quite the contrary to Jourard and Lasakow (1958).

As already stated, there was a difference in ability to self-disclose between males and females of the divorce group. Testing for simple effects found that females disclose as much as do males to mother, father and male friend target persons but females disclose more to a female friend than do males. The

difference did not necessarily mean that the absence of the father retarded the males' ability to self-disclose to a female friend. Nor can it be assumed that the absence of the father aided the child in withdrawing from relating to other individuals. If Alcorns' hypothesis were valid, there should have resulted a significant interaction effect between males and females of the divorce home versus males and females of non-divorce home.

Females, of the divorce home, had not disclosed any more to a female friend than had males just because the father was not present. Females disclosed more to a female because it was easier for a female to make the transition from mother relatedness to female friend relatedness. A cultural taboo prevented the male child from seeking this female friend relationship in such proportions as did females. It could be said, however, that the absence of the father was a test of this particular cultural taboo, but not a cause. Neither was it to be expected that with an absent father the ties between a mother and son should become stronger, therefore expecting the male to seek female companionship in the same degree of strength with a female friend. If this were the case, males of the divorce home would be relating an excess amount to the mother then would males of the non-divorce home. Again this was not the case.

The third main effect hypothesis predicted that

birth order one Ss would not differ in the amount of self-disclosure from birth order two Ss. The hypothesis applied to the three analyses: 1) over the divorce group versus non-divorce group combined, 2) over the divorce group, and 3) over the non-divorce group.

As indicated in Chapter III, no statistically significant differences were found. It was then theorized that birth order one Ss disclose as much as birth order two Ss and are just as socially dexterous--a position contrary to the Munz and Diamond (1968) study. Therefore, the absence or presence of the father within the home had not accelerated or retarded a S's ability to self-disclose to the remaining target persons.

However, upon computing an analysis over birth order interaction of the divorce versus non-divorce groups, a significant F ratio was netted. In testing for simple effects of birth orders one and two of the divorce group versus non-divorce group, a significant F ratio was found on both counts. Therefore, the non-significant F test for the birth order main effect was disregarded.

What was then theorized was that birth order two subjects of the non-divorce group disclose more than birth order one Ss--a position confirmed by the Munz and Diamond study. The reverse position was found tenable for the divorce group, in that birth order two Ss were

disclosing less than birth order one Ss.

Reasons for the occurrence were many. In disclosing more, the birth order one Ss displayed a lesser degree of fear, guilt and withdrawal. Undoubtedly birth order one Ss were able to accept the divorce situation more readily than birth order two Ss. The divorce act itself probably forced the older student to mature faster because of the added responsibilities he had to assume, such as protecting the younger siblings, in some cases being a father to them, and at all times being more stable and secure in dealing with environmental situations. On the other hand, birth order two Ss were unable to accept the divorce situation and feared that their world was disrupted. Coupled with this disorientation and fear was the feeling that one had lost love, affection and trust. A position held by Jourard and Lasakow (1959). The final result was the inability of the birth order two student to establish any degree of closeness to other individuals wherein the self was revealed.

Once again one must be cautious and not rely on speculation, for over searching for causes may lead to factors outside the parameters of the study. It would be unfair to use the Stanley and Bownes (1966) or Fitzgerald (1963) studies to infer that second borns who disclosed less were more prone to introvertidness and low

self-esteem merely because their sample of Ss showed such results. However, a further explanation of the errors which can be easily made will be explained later.

The fourth main effect hypothesis predicted there would be no difference in the amount of self-disclosure for those subjects who came from a home broken by divorce of 1-4 years, 5-10 years, and 11 or more years. The null hypothesis was not found tenable because a difference did exist among the amounts of self-disclosure for subjects of the different divorce levels. Divorce one and two groups were disclosing more about the self to the four target persons than was the divorce three group. However, the differences between divorce one and three were not dependent upon individual target person disclosure scores, but most likely upon a combination of scores. Within a combination of the target person variable the student from the shorter divorce length home was probably more upset by the divorce and was therefore seeking a combination of people to disclose to--not seeking security in numbers rather than individuals. If the combination was with male friend and female friend, the child probably resented his mother and father and therefore sought two people to replace them. However, this explanation was purely speculative for an analysis was not set up to see if the differences were between mother and father versus male friend and female friend were

significant.

On the other hand, the differences between the divorce two group and the divorce three group existed within the female target person variable. Divorce three Ss were disclosing less than divorce two subjects. The reasoning behind this occurrence rests within the area of rejection, fear, guilt, and withdrawal.

The freshman college student whose home was disrupted by divorce for eleven or more years probably had not required an extra female person in which to disclose. That is, whatever the student wished to discuss with a female friend he did do so with the mother, and the presence of another female only meant repeating what he previously disclosed to the mother. Therefore, such a situation implied that the student was quite well adjusted to the divorce situation, provided that the amount of self-disclosure to all other target persons was somewhat evenly distributed. The reverse situation was more likely to take place than not. That is, the student of the divorce three situation, who lived with the idea for eleven or more years that his mother was the cause of the divorce, may ellude an alliance with a female friend for fear that the female friend will, at some further date, break the bond for the same reasons his mother broke ties with the father. Consequently, the student did not seek confidence with a female friend. This was

especially eminent if the child had at one time a fairly secure alliance with the father. It did not mean, however, that the student sought another target person in which to doubly disclose. The student might just not wish to disclose as much to the female friend. One might conclude that those students of a divorce three situation were not strongly influenced by an oedipal bind with the mother. This particular type of relationship warranted a high amount of disclosure to a female friend, once the student left the boundaries of the home. The present situation (students from homes of eleven or more years of divorce) was quite indicative of social independence. In this longer period of time the individual had sufficient opportunity to gain social independence, whether through force or need.

Another and more stressful reason for the lesser amount of self-disclosure toward a female friend rested within the area of conscious or unconscious sex role identification. In our present society we expect males to identify after males and females after females. However, in a divorce home situation the mother must assume a great many of the absent father's responsibilities, in addition to her own. The subject then came to resent his mother's newly acclaimed role and shunned an alliance with a female friend for fear that she too portrayed a dual role. This occurrence most likely had

not affected the shorter divorce periods as the student had not yet had the opportunity to recognize his mother's dual position. Too, if the shorter divorce period implied a longer marriage span, then the child had an extended opportunity to witness the roles of the mother and father and was not confused by the mother's new responsibility. Consequently, the child did not fear an alliance with a female friend.

On the other hand, guilt was often associated with divorce, especially if the child was born when the divorce proceedings were about to take place. The child often felt that he was the cause of the divorce. By the time the child reached college, he might not have sought a female friend to disclose to for fear that he will again break an alliance. Therefore, in order to alleviate the problem the student withheld as much about the self from a female friend as he could.

The importance of the findings was very significant in altering such theories as Glasser's and Navarre's (1965) who maintained that a child from a divorce home was unable to communicate his thoughts and feelings to other people. The present study was in direct contrast to this position and pointed out that children of the divorce home did establish a degree of closeness to certain target person individuals--even toward the absent father,--and for reasons other than inability did not

disclose as much to female friends. The study also brought forth the idea that the father of the divorce home never did contribute a great deal to the individual's self-disclosing ability, as there was no drastic change in the remaining amounts of self-disclosure upon and after the father's departure.

The first of the interaction hypothesis predicted that no interaction would take place between sex and target person. That is, sex of the Ss would not affect the amount of self-disclosure to each target person; nor would the target person variable affect the amount of total self-disclosure projected by male or female Ss. The prediction had been found tenable for two of the three analyses.

It was safe to conclude, therefore, that males and females of the divorce versus non-divorce group combined had not differed in amount of self-disclosure to each of the four target persons. The same result was true for the non-divorce group separately. In other words, differences in the target person disclosure scores were not dependent upon sex of the subject.

However, as indicated in Chapter III, a significant interaction was found between sex of the subject and amount of self-disclosure projected toward each target person of the divorce group. As a discussion was already presented, dealing with the above-mentioned

hypothesis, under the main effect hypothesis of male self-disclosure equals female disclosure, further discussion would only be redundant.

The second first order interaction hypothesis predicted that the amount of target person disclosure is not dependent upon birth order of the Ss. The hypothesis was found tenable for all three analyses: 1) over the divorce group, 2) over the non-divorce group, and 3) over the divorce versus non-divorce group combined.

It was therefore theorized that the amount of self-disclosure to each target person was not affected by the relative birth order of the subjects for the divorce and non-divorce group combined, and for the non-divorce and divorce group separately. In addition the absence or presence of the father had not accelerated or retarded the amount of self-disclosure projected upon the remaining target persons for either birth order one or birth order two freshman college students of the divorce and non-divorce group separately, and for the divorce versus non-divorce group combined.

The third first order interaction predicted there would be no affect of the relative divorce level of the Ss upon target person disclosure scores. The hypothesis was found tenable. It was, therefore, theorized that the length of divorce had not affected a Ss ability to self-disclose to each target person. Nor,

had the target person variable affected the amount of self-disclosure of each individual. That is, the differences observed in target person disclosure scores were not dependent upon the relative sex of the individual.

The fourth first order interaction affect predicted there would be no affect of the sex Ss upon birth order one and two disclosure scores. The hypothesis was found tenable for all three analyses: 1) over the divorce group versus non-divorce group combined, 2) over the divorce group, and 3) over the non-divorce group. Therefore, the differences noted in total amounts of self-disclosure of birth order were not dependent upon sex of the subject.

The fifth first order interaction hypothesis predicted there would be no significant interaction between the sex of the Ss and his relative divorce level. The hypothesis was found tenable for the divorce group. That is, differences in amount of self-disclosure of the three divorce levels was not dependent upon sex of the Ss, but upon other factors.

The sixth first order interaction hypothesis predicted there would be no significant interaction between birth order of the subject and his related birth order. The hypothesis was found tenable for the divorce group. That is, the differences reported in

birth order target person scores were not dependent upon the relative divorce level of the subject. Similarly, differences observed in the self-disclosure scores of the three divorce levels were not dependent on the birth order levels of the Ss.

The three third order interactions predicted there would be no association among sex, target person and birth order in terms of amount of self-disclosure; among birth order, target person and divorce level in terms of amount of self-disclosure; and sex, birth order and divorce level in terms of amount of self-disclosure for freshman college students. With exception of Birth Order X Target Person X Divorce Level and Sex X Birth Order X Divorce Level the above prediction was found tenable for the analyses over the divorce group versus non-divorce group combined, and over the individual non-divorce group. All these predictions were found tenable for the divorce group. Via brevity, sex of the subject disclosure had not affected the amount of target person and birth order disclosure; nor did any particular target person affect the amount of sex and birth order disclosure; neither did birth order affect the amount of individual target person and sex disclosure. Similarly, the same logic was applied to the remainder of the second order interactions and the two alternatives to each interaction are, of course, logically equivalent.

The single third order interaction predicted that there would be no interaction among sex, target person, birth order, and divorce level self-disclosure scores for freshman college students of the divorce group. The hypothesis was found tenable for the divorce group. Therefore, it was theorized that individual sex disclosure scores had not depended upon individual target person scores, birth order self-disclosing scores and the three divorce length scores. The logical equivalents to this occurrence were also found tenable.

Source of Error

There are, of course, limitations to the design which must be considered. These limitations for the most part are those which are characteristic of all research in the behavioral sciences.

First, it was impossible to obtain a random sample of the American divorce and non-divorce family. Each family exhibited certain traits that another family did not. In the present design this meant that the sample size had to be limited to a minimum of five or more per group. Therefore, it was not known to what extent the results would be the same were the number of cases multiplied by a factor of ten. However, this was not possible in terms of availability of data.

Second, there may have been sampling error. There was no way of knowing whether the freshman college

students of the divorce group who interpreted the questionnaire were systematically different from those freshman college students of the non-divorce home. There was, indeed, at least some reason to suspect that there might be some differences, in the sense that freshman college students of the divorce home might have unconsciously confused the role of the male friend with that of the father. Therefore, the male friend might have received a greater amount of self-disclosure than he should have. These qualities--if they existed--might have affected the study in an undetermined manner.

A third possible source of error was that subjects were only roughly equated in traits other than being from the divorce or non-divorce group. It was impossible to match all 180 subjects in terms of personality characteristics, grade point averages, intelligence, basic religion, and the like. For example, it was not known to what extent the personality of each of the 180 individuals influenced responses made on self-disclosing questionnaire. The evaluation of the above-mentioned factors will remain for further research.

For the present study, it was necessary to assume that such errors as have been mentioned above were probably distributed randomly. Therefore, they would not have unduly biased the research findings.

Implications for Future Research

Several implications for future research developed from the source of error presented above. First, an attempt should have been made to increase the sample size of the divorce group. It may be possible, over a cross-section of the country, to increase the number of subjects in the divorce group so that a broader sample of students from the female-based home was possible. Nevertheless, the possibility seemed rather remote that a truly random sample of the female-based home could be obtained.

Second, an attempt should have been made to achieve homogeneity among the divorce and non-divorce home. Matched samples would have, of course, required the application of very strict controls over the two groups. Stability for the two groups might well be procured with criteria such as intelligence, socioeconomic status, religion, grade point average and the like; but individual differences, such as personality, would have been difficult to standardize.

A host of other possibilities for future research developed from the very concept of a comparative study at almost any level. For example: self-disclosing ability of college students from the divorce home might well be pitted against a group of students from a female-based home who had not attended college. Within the same

study a test of verbal ability could have been used to see if there was a marked difference in intelligence of the two groups; besides correlating verbal ability with self-disclosing ability of college bound and non-college bound divorced home students. Another area of research existed within the realm of self-disclosing ability of children from a female-based home and the rate of homosexuality in college students. That is, did homosexual students establish a fair degree of interpersonal relationships to other target persons, if they were from a female-based family wherein oedipal ties were strong, as do non-homosexual persons? However, the problem would then become one of establishing the degree of homosexuality, let alone finding enough subjects within a society of taboos.

Other such comparative studies that could have been undertaken were: 1) the student of the female-based family versus the student of the male-based family, 2) cross-sectional studies of self-disclosure of children from a female-based family, 3) birth order one students versus birth order two students of the female-based family in terms of self-disclosure and intelligence, and 4) self-disclosure of the female-based family in accord to taboo and non-taboo topics versus the intact and father-based family. Of course, each study undertaken would have depended upon increasing

sampsample size in order to increase the accuracy of the overall population estimates, as well as increasing the accuracy of each subdivision.

Not only might comparative studies be useful, but experimental situations would be beneficial in understanding the student from a female-based home. As the present study found birth order differences, there was reason to believe that birth order two subjects were more resistant to anxiety than birth order one subjects. Therefore, it would be interesting to have induced an anxiety laden situation to see which birth order accelerated or retarded its self-disclosing ability. Other such manipulative variables might have been fear, hostility, withdrawal, and the like. Each one would have supplied insight into understanding the child of the divorce home.

There are, of course, studies needed dealing with the instrument itself. Ideally, the questionnaire should be standardized. But then, how might one standardize individual differences? Construct validity must also receive a greater amount of research in the future. The questionnaire must be pitted against a number of similar questionnaires to see if its construct validity can be upheld. However, there are few known tests to measure interpersonal relationships amongst individuals. Probably the best measurement of interpersonal relationships

available is the clinical setting itself.

Needless to say, any study of this type always seems to raise more questions than are answered. However, if stereotypes concerning the child from female-based homes are to be broken for the purpose of better counseling, guidance, and understanding, those studies mentioned above must be undertaken.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE: THE FEMALE-BASED FAMILY

The following questionnaire was administered to 4800 freshman university students in order to gather appropriate information from those students from a divorced-separate family.

November 26, 1969

Dear Colleague:

As you are probably aware the Education College is one of the most research oriented colleges on campus. And, I am sure you have been "plagued" in the past by various departments to have your students fill-out questionnaires. My request differs not.

The reason for requesting this of the English and Psychology Departments is that you have approximately 4800 freshman students out of a possible 4929 on the entire university campus--and the research design has been devised to test freshman students.

For all students you meet in all of your sections would you please have them fill-out the provided questionnaire. The entire questionnaire should not take more than 5 or 6 minutes of class time.

Please pick-up and return the questionnaire to the Office, room 113, English Department (Gittinger hall).

Thank you for your assistance in the data gathering process of this research proposal.

I remain

Yours truly,

Edward L. Ohlson
College of Education

ELO:lmc

1. NAME _____ (last) (first) (middle) _____ 2. AGE _____ (in years) _____

3. SEX...M / / F / / 4. Coll Class FR / / SO / /

JR / / SR / / GR / /

<u>Parental Status</u>			
Parents Divorced	Parents Separated	Mother Deceased	Father Deceased
1	2	3	4
Mother Remarried		Father Remarried	Family Intact
5	6		7

```
length of marriage.....1 / /
length of divorce.....2 / /
your age at time of divorce
  or separation.....3 / /
```

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remained with your mother.....1 / /
remained with your father.....2 / /
neither (relatives, friends).....3 / /

```

8. Number of children in your family counting yourself..... / /

9. In reference to the rest of the family you are:

- a. an only child.....1 / /
- b. firstborn.....2 / /
- c. secondborn.....3 / /
- d. thirdborn.....4 / /
- e. fourthborn.....5 / /
- f. fifthborn.....6 / /
- g. sixthborn.....7 / /

10. Outside your own birth position, who was:

- | | | | | |
|--------------------|---------|-------|-----------|---|
| | | A | | B |
| a. firstborn..... | brother | 1 / / | age 1 / / | |
| | sister | 1 / / | age 1 / / | |
| | | C | | D |
| | | A | | B |
| b. secondborn..... | brother | 2 / / | age 2 / / | |
| | sister | 2 / / | age 2 / / | |
| | | C | | D |
| | | A | | B |
| c. thirdborn..... | brother | 3 / / | age 3 / / | |
| | sister | 3 / / | age 3 / / | |
| | | C | | D |
| | | A | | B |
| d. fourthborn..... | brother | 4 / / | age 4 / / | |
| | sister | 4 / / | age 4 / / | |
| | | C | | D |
| | | A | | B |
| e. fifthborn..... | brother | 5 / / | age 5 / / | |
| | sister | 5 / / | age 5 / / | |
| | | C | | D |
| | | A | | B |
| f. sixthborn..... | brother | 6 / / | age 6 / / | |
| | sister | 6 / / | age 6 / / | |
| | | C | | D |

Thank you for your cooperation in completing this form.

APPENDIX B

JOURARD AND LASAKOW SELF-DISCLOSURE QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions

The answer-sheet which you have been given has columns with the headings "Mother," "Father," "Male Friend," "Female Friend," and "Spouse." You are to read each item on the questionnaire, and then indicate on the answer-sheet the extent that you have talked about the item to each person; that is, the extent to which you have made yourself known to that person. Use the rating-scale that you see on the answer sheet to describe the extent that you have talked about each item. All freshman students will leave the "Spouse" column blank.

The self-disclosure rating-scale was as follows:

- 0: Have told the other person nothing about this aspect of me.
- 1: Have talked in general terms about this item. The other person has only a general idea about this aspect of me.
- 2: Have talked in full and complete detail about this item to the other person. He knows me fully in this respect, and could describe me accurately.
- X: Have lied or misrepresented myself to the other person so that he has a false picture.

The Self-Disclosure Questionnaire

I. Attitudes and Opinions

1. What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views.
2. My personal opinions and feelings about other religious groups than my own, e.g., Protestants, Catholics, Jews, atheists.
3. My views on communism.
4. My views on the present government--the president, government, policies, etc.
5. My views on the question of racial integration in school, transportation, etc.
6. My personal views on drinking.
7. My personal views on sexual morality--how I feel that I and others ought to behave in sexual matters.
8. My personal standards of beauty and attractiveness in women--what I consider to be attractive in a woman.
9. The things that I regard as desirable for a man to be--what I look for in a man.
10. My feeling about how parents ought to deal with children.

II. Tastes and Interests

11. My favorite foods, the ways I like food prepared, and my food dislikes.
12. My favorite beverages, and the ones I don't like.
13. My favorite dislikes in music.
14. My favorite reading matter.
15. The kinds of movies that I like to see best; the TV shows that are my favorites.
16. My tastes in clothing.

17. The style of house, and the kinds of furnishings that I like best.
18. The kind of party, or social gathering that I like best, and the kind that would bore me, or that I wouldn't enjoy.
19. My favorite ways of spending spare time, e.g., hunting, reading, cards, sports events, parties, dancing, etc.
20. What I would appreciate most for a present.

Work (or studies)

21. What I find to be the worse pressures and strains in my work.
22. What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my work.
23. What I enjoy most, and get the most satisfaction from in my present work.
24. What I feel are my shortcomings and handicaps that prevent me from working as I'd like to, or that prevent me from getting further ahead in my work.
25. What I feel are my special strong points and qualifications for my work.
26. How I feel that my work is appreciated by others (e.g., boss, fellow workers, teacher, husband, etc.).
27. My ambitions and goals in my work.
28. My feelings about the salary or rewards that I get for my work.
29. How I feel about the choice of career that I have made--whether or not I'm satisfied with it.
30. How I really feel about the people that I work for, or work with.

Money

31. How much money I make at my work, or get as an allowance.

32. Whether or not I owe money; if so, how much.
33. Whom I owe money to at present; or whom I have borrowed from in the past.
34. Whether or not I have savings, and the amount.
35. Whether or not others owe me money; the amount, and who owes it to me.
36. Whether or not I gamble; if so, the way I gamble, and the extent of it.
37. All of my present sources of income--wages, fees, allowance, dividends, etc.
38. My total financial worth, including property, savings, bonds, insurance, etc.
39. My most pressing need for money right now, e.g., outstanding bills, some major purchases that are desired or needed.
40. How I budget my money--the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, etc.

Personality

41. The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me.
42. What feelings, if any, that I have trouble expressing or controlling.
43. The facts of my present sex life--including knowledge of how I get sexual gratification; any problems that I might have; with whom I have relations, if anybody.
44. Whether or not I feel that I am attractive to the opposite sex; my problems, if any, about getting favorable attention from the opposite sex.
45. Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about.
46. The kinds of things that make me just furious.
47. What it takes to get me feeling real depressed or blue.

- 48. What it takes to get me real worried, anxious, and afraid.
- 49. What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply.
- 50. The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, elated, full of self-esteem or self-respect.

Body

- 51. My feelings about the appearance of my face-- things I don't like, and things that I might like about my face and head--nose, eyes, hair, teeth, etc.
- 52. How I wish I looked: my ideals for overall appearance.
- 53. My feelings about different parts of my body-- legs, hips, waist, weight, chest or bust, etc.
- 54. Any problems and worries that I had with my appearance in the past.
- 55. Whether or not I now have any health problems-- e.g., trouble with sleep, digestion, female complaints, heart condition, allergies, headaches, piles, etc.
- 56. Whether or not I have any long-range worries or concerns about my health, e.g., cancer, ulcers, heart trouble.
- 57. My past record of illness and treatment.
- 58. Whether or not I now make special effort to keep fit, healthy, and attractive, e.g., calisthenics, diet.
- 59. My present measurements, e.g., height, weight, waist, etc.
- 60. My feelings about my adequacy in sexual behavior-- whether or not I feel able to perform adequately in sex-relationships.

ANSWER SHEET

Mother	Father	Male Friend	Female Friend	Spouse
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	Mother	Father	Male Friend	Female Friend	Spouse
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